



Introduction to forensic psychology

Intro To Forensic Psychology (Griffith University)



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Introduction to forensic psychology

PASS Wednesday 2-3 G27 and Friday 1-2 – G40

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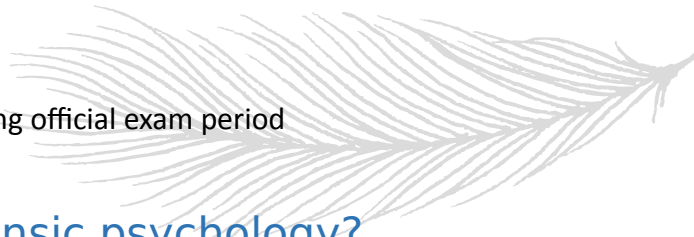
Assessment details

1. Online Quizzes 20%
 - ☐ 4 quizzes
 - ☐ Due Friday 5pm, Week 2, 4, 6, 9
 - ☐ Essay 40%
 - ☐ 2000 words
 - ☐ Due Monday 4 September 8:55 am

The essay must be submitted to Turnitin

1. Exam 40%
2. 90 multiple choice questions (2 hours)
3. Cover set readings and lectures for Weeks 1 – 12

4. During official exam period



What is forensic psychology?

- Psychology:
 - The science of human
 - Thought (Cognition);
 - Emotion (Affect); and
 - Behaviour (thinking)
- Forensic: means 'of the courts'
- Literal interpretation: 'psychology of the courts'
- Criminal psychology
 - Relates to the psychology of criminal behaviour as well as the social context in which it occurs.
- Forensic psychology is broader than criminal psychology. It relates to:
 - Criminal law
 - Civil law
 - Family law

2 major approaches to defining Forensic Psychology:

- 1. Narrow
 - The application and practice of psychology in the legal system, particularly the courts
 - 2. Broad
 - Covers a wider application of psychology to legal matters
- (We use the broad definition in this course)

Researcher practitioners

"ground the discipline in social reality through the use of empirical research"
(Howitt, 2009, p.7)

Major components of Forensic Psychology

APPLIED

Police psychology

- Recruitment
- stress

Investigative psychology

- 
- profiling
 - Geographical profiling

Clinical psychology

- Assessment
- prediction

Prison psychology

- treatment
- Parole/release

ACADEMIC

Biological psychology

- Criminal inheritance
- Effects of injury

Developmental psychology

- aggression
- delinquency

Cognitive psychology

- Eyewitness testimony
- interviewing

Social psychology

- Juries
- Media influences

Brief history of forensic and criminal psychology

Long and slow history

- 1893: J. McKeen Cattell conducted the first experiment on the psychology of testimony
- 1921: An American psychologist testified as an expert witness in a courtroom
- 1970s: Term 'forensic psychology' emerged
- 1971 – 1978 – professional bodies devoted to psychology and law established
- 2001: American Psychological Association recognises Forensic Psychology as an applied specialty within the field

History of forensic and criminal psychology

- Related to:
 - ☐ Changes in the law
 - Eg. Insanity and competence to stand trial
 - ☐ Links with parent discipline

- 
- Eg. Ebbinghaus – memory research
 - Social change
 - Eg. Greater recognition of child sex abuse in recent times
 - Early work in criminology, sociology, psychiatry
 - Beccaria, publication of official crime statistics (France), Lombroso, Shrenk-Nortzing

Tension between psychology and law

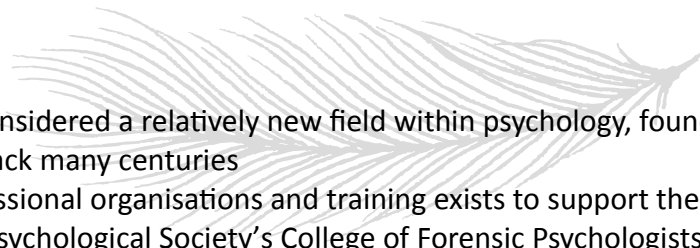
- Why has acceptance in court rooms been so slow:
 - reluctance of courts to accept evidence of psychologists as expert witnesses
 - key disciplines such as clinical psychology in the U.K. did not grow significantly until 2nd half of 20th century
 - small numbers of psychologists, often working in academic contexts
- Both law and psychology focus on the individual
- Both concerned with predicting, explaining and controlling behaviour; BUT
- 8 sources of conflict (Haney, 1980):
 1. Law stresses conservatism; psych stresses creativity
 2. Law is authoritative; psych is empirical
 3. Law relies on adversarial process; psych relies on experimentation
 4. Law is prescriptive; psych is descriptive
 5. Law is idiographic; psych is nomothetic
 6. Law emphasises certainty; psych is probabilistic
 7. Law is reactive; psych is proactive
 8. Law is operational; psych is academic

Final points about tension between psychology and law

- Determinism versus free will
 - Determinism = Eg. males are more likely to be criminologist than woman (??)
 - Age, sex, osv. (???)
 - Biologist to crime (??)
 - Laws sais every one handles after free will, but psychologist sais people can (??)
- Ecological validity of research

Summary

- Forensic psychology has broad applications but we are focusing on the production and application of psychological knowledge as it relates to the criminal justice system and offending

- 
- Although considered a relatively new field within psychology, foundational work can be traced back many centuries
 - Today professional organisations and training exists to support the discipline (e.g., Australian Psychological Society's College of Forensic Psychologists, and accredited university postgraduate programs)

Learning objects

- To appreciate psychology in forensics and crime, you must first –
 - ☐ Understand the origins of what constitutes a crime and how it is defined
 - ☐ Appreciate the extent of crime and criminality
 - ☐ Understand sources of crime reporting and associated issues
 - ☐ Understand public attitudes to crime
 - ☐ Understand the nature of fear of crime

Over view

- The Social Context of Crime
 - ☐ What is a crime?
 - ☐ The extent of crime
 - ☐ The extent of criminality
 - ☐ International crime rates
 - ☐ Sources of crime statistics
- Crime and the Public
 - ☐ Attitudes and moral panics
 - ☐ Fear of crime
 - ☐ Theories of fear of crime

What is crime?

Breaking the law, but who decides the law? The governments and the norms have an impact on the laws. In Australia smoking pot is a crime, but not in Netherland. So does crime exist. Crime is a social construct. Disagreement of what is a crime or not, like being gay. Most people agree that murder is a crime. But if you're in a war and kill someone is that a crime?

Crime is a fluid thing.

- Little consensus around the term crime
- Some crimes are obvious
- Some examples are not so clear-cut
- What factors do we use to decide that some behaviours are criminal and others are not?



Crime is socially constructed

- Crime is always socially defined and constructed
- Many diverse definitions offered as to what constitutes a crime
- Dependent on world view
- Raises questions about whether crime should be defined by law, or moral and social conceptions
- Point: What may be a crime to me, may not be to you

Understanding crime

- How we understand crime is a result of social practices such as:
 - ☐ Legal definitions
 - ☐ Reporting practices of victims/observers of criminal conduct
 - ☐ Recording practices of police
 - ☐ Prosecution policy and practices
 - ☐ Court room interpretations of conduct
 - ☐ Mechanisms used to officially report crime (e.g., victim surveys; police records, etc)
- However, these factors unstable and subject to change

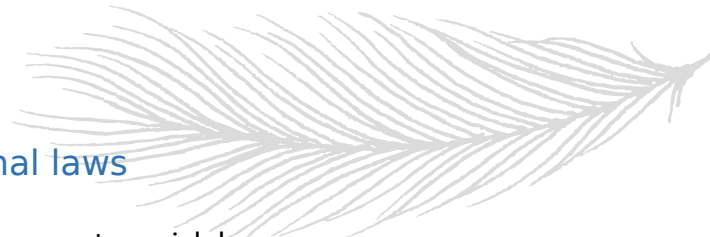
Legal definition of crime

- Determines how we as a society respond to acts deemed to be wrongful
- But changes over time (law not static)
- Problems:
 - ☐ Strips crime of any moral dimension
 - ☐ Ignores social context
 - ☐ If rely on a legal definition of crime alone, it suggests something is a crime only when it violates criminal law.

Other definitions

- Human rights - Crime occurs whenever a human right has been violated, regardless of the legality of the action.
 - ☐ Genocide, mass political killings, state terrorism, state sanctioned torture
- Social harm - crime involves both criminal offences (eg. Assault) and civil offences (eg. Negligence), in that each type of action or inaction brings with it some type of harm.
 - ☐ Victimless crime (drug use) ????

When your rights are written down, your rights get really restricted. In Australia they don't have their rights written down like in USA



Aims of criminal laws

- Punitive response to social dangers;
- One means of the state guaranteeing the protection of its citizens;
- Symbolic deterrence message;
- Changing values – alcohol, smoking and gambling.

Keep in mind, what's the point, what are we trying to achieve. Why do we send people to jail? What's the point of jail? There are different purposes. When we send someone to jail it's a punishment but we are also protecting the society. By sending someone to jail we're also trying to prevent someone to do it again. For someone it's terrible for someone to go to jail, for someone it's not.

The extent of crime

- What percentage of persons are victims of a crime in Australia each year?
- How many murders were committed in Australia in 2011?
- Victims of robbery – 15-24 years
- What about sexual assault?
- Are Indigenous Australians more likely to be victimised than non-indigenous Australians?
- The most common crime recorded by police in Australia (and many other societies) is property crime
- What was the most prevalent offence / charge for which a person was imprisoned in 2010?

The extent of criminality

- To what extent is criminal behaviour normal?
 - ☐ General imprisonment rates
 - 215 persons per 100,000 (2017 March)
 - ☐ Some groups more likely to have recorded crime/prison sentences
 - Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islanders 2,403 per 100,000
 - ☐ Some involvement in crime during lifetime is virtually common
- Farrington and Kidd (1977) 'lost envelope study'
 - ☐ Envelopes with letter but no money enclosed – 95% returned
 - ☐ Envelopes with £1 – 75% returned
 - ☐ Envelopes with £5 – 55% returned

The extent of criminality

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Braithwaite's 13 Powerful associations of crime

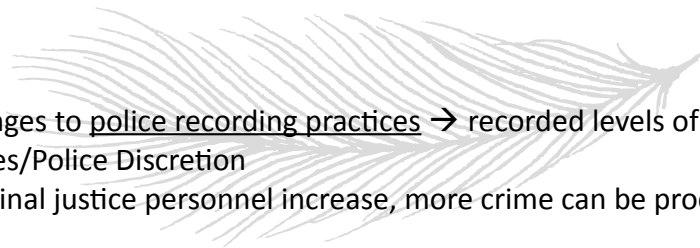
1. Crime committed disproportionately by men;
2. “ “ “ by 15-25 year olds;
3. “ ” ” by unmarried people;
4. “ “ “ by people living in large cities;
5. “ “ “ by people who have experienced high; residential mobility or who live in these areas;
6. Youth attached to school less likely to offend;
7. Youth with high aspirations less likely to offend;
8. Youth who do poorly at school more likely to offend;
9. Youth attached to parents less likely to offend;
10. Youth with friendships with criminals more likely to offend;
11. People with strong views about complying with the law less likely to offend;
12. Being in low SES increases rate of offending for all types of crime except white-collar crime
13. Crime rates have been increasing in most countries since WWII

Sources of the extent of crime

- Crimes reported to police
- Surveys of the public's experience of crime / victimisation
- Court statistics
- Prison statistics
- General population offender surveys
- Ability to measure crime is important:
 - ☐ How much crime is there?
 - ☐ How does it compare from one place to another?
 - ☐ How much is it changing over time?

Police statistics

- Police statistics the most commonly used measures of crime in Australia
- Limitations
 - ☐ Police don't cover all crime
 - ☐ Statistics rely on people reporting to police
 - ☐ Changes to police practices → level of recorded crime

- 
- ☐ Changes to police recording practices → recorded levels of crime
 - ☐ Biases/Police Discretion
 - ☐ Criminal justice personnel increase, more crime can be processed/detected

Crime victim surveys

- Most common alternative and usually anonymous
- Attempt at representative sample, respondents asked to recall experience of victimisation over past 12 mths
- Useful in several ways:
 1. Can get info directly from public;
 2. Can help to interpret police crime statistics;
 3. Useful in investigating why individuals report crime or fail to report it
 4. For crimes involving identifiable victims, surveys give a more accurate picture of the true level of crime (indicate higher levels of crime)* than police statistics

Problem with victim surveys

- Recall error
 - ☐ Some may simply not remember an incident
 - ☐ 'Telescoping' – not accurately recalling when the incident occurred
 - ☐ Repeat victimisation - boundaries between each crime become blurred
- Reluctance to disclose victimisation, even if anonymous (fear, embarrassment)
- Underestimate incidents of crime where victim and offender know each other

Self-report offender surveys

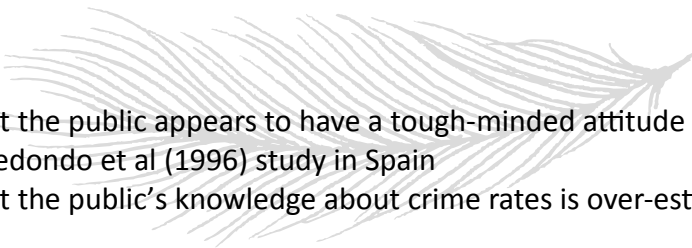
- An obvious alternative to asking people whether they have been victims of crime is to ask whether they have committed a crime
- Can target general population or specific sub-groups
 - ☐ Eg., youth; drug users, men, etc
- Tend to underestimate frequency of offending
- If survey youth, don't get a picture necessarily of all offences (e.g., white collar crime)
- Very few self-report offending surveys in Australia

Other types of crime data

- Court statistics
- Prison statistics
- Accident and emergency data
- Each type of data source provides a different perspective on criminal activity

Crime and public attitudes

- Attitudes to crime matter

- 
- Evidence that the public appears to have a tough-minded attitude towards crime
 - Eg. Redondo et al (1996) study in Spain
 - Evidence that the public's knowledge about crime rates is over-estimated

Moral panics

- Stanley Cohen (1972, 1980)
 - Overreaction to an event, such as a type of crime, which is seen as a threat to society's values
- Perceived threat of a crime is greater than the actual likelihood
- Moral panics have, at times, led to new legislation (e.g., sex offender laws/preventative detention)

Fear of crime

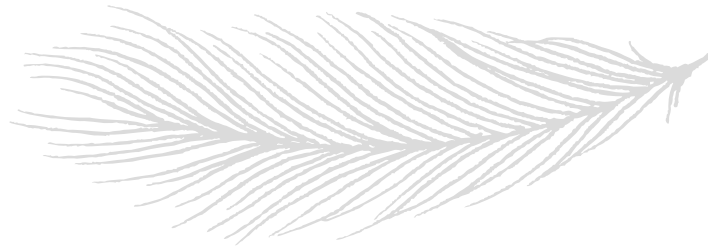
- Fear of crime not always (and usually not) commensurate with actual risk of victimisation
 - Fear-victimisation paradox (Clark, 2004)
- Influenced by
 - Direct knowledge
 - Mass media
 - Personality and social characteristics
- However, those most at risk are young adolescent/adult males
- Males most at risk of attack from people they don't know
- Women most likely to be physically assaulted by someone they know

Theories of "fear of crime"

- Cultivation theory
 - Mean world syndrome - more hours spent watching television (and more violent programs) → world view of high crime levels
- Availability heuristic theory
- Cognitive theory

Summary

- The Social Context of Crime
 - What is a crime?
 - The extent of crime
 - The extent of criminality
 - International crime rates
 - Sources of crime statistics
 - Crime and the Public
 - Attitudes and moral panics
 - Fear of crime
 - Theories of fear of crime



Theories of crime

Learning objectives

- The learning objectives of this lecture are to:
 - » Understand what a theory is and their application in Forensic Psychology
 - » Be able to understand and explain seven major psychological theories relevant to crime, as follows: -
 - Neuropsychological theories
 - Intelligence and crime
 - Rational choice theory
 - Attachment theory
 - Eysenck's biosocial theory
 - Social learning theory
 - Social construction theories

What is a theory?

1. Attempts to classify and organize events (what causes crime)
2. To explain causes of events, to predict direction of future events, and to understand why and how these events occur

3. Is developed using existing evidence
(deductive - pattern and evidence)
(inductive – this is what I think)
4. Organizes existing information
5. Includes basic concepts and indicates how these concepts are related to each other
6. Makes predictions
7. Indicates *how* factors exert their influence and under what conditions

Why do we need theories?

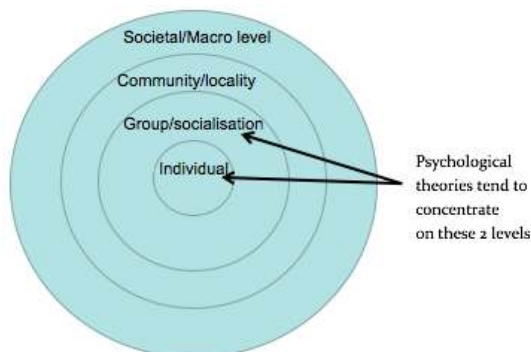
- To understand and explain 'why'
- Once we understand why, use this to attempt to prevent crime
- After a theory is developed, researchers test the predictions in research - confidence in the theory strengthened or weakened

Observative trend - Everyone is different and live in different environment, so it will always be exceptions (????)

Not one theory can explain every criminal (??)

Why are there multiple theories?

- Enable us to understand crime from different perspectives
- Different theories can operate at different levels of analysis.
 - » Societal or macro-level theories
 - eg. Merton's strain theory
 - Society's goals are available only to a few – frustration/anomie for those that cannot achieve these goals = crime
 - » Community or local theories
 - eg. The Chicago School – zones of transition – twilight zones deserted by the middle class
 - » Group and socialization influence theories
 - eg. Sutherland's differential association theory: crime by class
 - » Individual level theories
 - eg. Personality theories or biological theories



For a complete understanding we need to consider how all of these levels influence crime - mostly supplement/complement each other (although theories can also compete)

1. Neuropsychology og offending

If parents do crime, will the children also do it (???)

People commit crimes due to physiological, anatomical or genetic defects

May be:

- a. inherited genetically
- b. due to peri-natal (when the child is being born) or pre-natal conditions (before birth – mother drink alcohol)
- c. a result of environmental factors
 - i. The effects of these factors may be **permanent or transitory** in nature

▪ *Genetics?*

- *If criminality is inherited genetically*
 - Someone from criminal biological family more likely to offend
 - Evidence?
 - Environmental factors or biological factors?
 - Raine (1993, p. 66) reviewed 15 studies on heritability and crime concluded “it would seem erroneous to deny the fact that genetic factors play some role in the [causes] of criminal behaviour”, especially for non-violent adult crime
 - BUT...still a **substantial** role of environment

Have to look at the average

Research on genetic influence

- » Crowe (1974)
 - Sample of adopted children
 - 2 groups

1. Biological mothers had criminal record (experimental group)

- 50% of adoptees had a criminal record by time they were 18

2. Biological mothers had no criminal record (matched control group)

- 5% of adoptees had criminal record

- » Suggests role for genetics

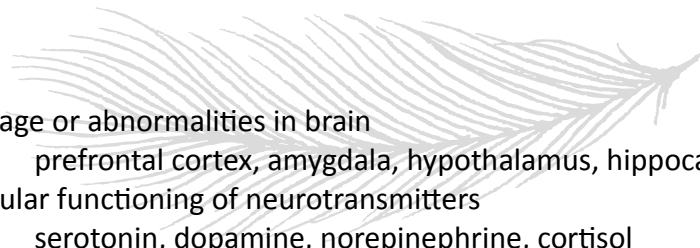
Mednick et al (1983)

- 14,500 male adoptees : the link was only found for property crimes, not violent crime

Adoptive parents	Biological parents	
	Criminal	Non-criminal
Criminal	24.5%	14.7%
Non-criminal	20%	13.5%

Examples of biological abnormalities and irregularities related to violence:

Different parts of the brain have the responsibility for different actions (??) and damages on the brain will have an impact on your decision makings, personality

- 
- » Damage or abnormalities in brain
 - prefrontal cortex, amygdala, hypothalamus, hippocampus
 - » Irregular functioning of neurotransmitters
 - serotonin, dopamine, norepinephrine, cortisol
 - » Some evidence that biological damage, abnormalities or irregularities can influence crime and violence

BUT...

these may result from environmental factors

Head injuries:

- » Some link between head injuries and crime
- » Can result in personality changes
 - E.g. Phineas Gage <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=5B2pQkqM6nc>
- » Evidence for link of brain abnormalities or head injuries to crime:
 - Abnormal brain EEG
 - PET scans
 - Offending samples - more head injuries
 - Perinatal complications – more violent crime
 - Link between brain damage and violent crime
 - Before vs after brain damage – small increase in offending

Benefits of neuropsychology theories:

- » Some influence on criminality BUT other factors also important AND may be more important for certain groups/individuals
- » If biological deficit identified - could try to target this to prevent crime
- Limitations:
 - » Our understanding is incomplete
 - » Not very popular
 - » Difficult to isolate influence of biological factors versus other factors

2. Intelligence and crime

- Offending related to low intelligence? Low intelligence = more likely to intend in crime
- Superficially compelling
- Education and training common in corrective services and often offenders do have low levels of education **BUT** this does not necessarily mean offenders are not intelligent
- Correlation only 0.1 for adults, 0.2 for juveniles (0.5 for other environmental factors – e.g., values, attitudes and beliefs)
 - 0.1 is the best correlation you can have

- ALSO...
 - » Not a popular theory
 - » Low intelligence not the norm in criminal populations
 - » Research support minor compared to many other

social factors

- » Offenders of high intelligence?
 - E.g. Ted Bundy

When you take an intelligence test you have to be careful and remember why you take the test and what do you want to find out (???)

Serial killers, tax fraud, hackers, are criminals who has to have an high intelligence / be smart

3. Rational choice theory

- Cognitive in nature in sense that they focus on the decisions people make in different situations of opportunity and in relation to particular types of crime
- Decision to break the law is a rational one
 - » Based on extent to which they think the choice will maximise their profits or benefits and minimise their costs or losses
- Decision making does NOT appear to be a matter of rational evaluation or calculation of costs and benefits
 - » Only benefits assessed
 - » RCT says both benefits and costs are assessed
 - » Most studies that test RCT do so now by also considering other factors at same time
 - » Point: RCT plausible if also consider other factors

4. Attachment theory

- John Bowlby's theory
 - » Attachments have been defined as "an affectional tie or social bond between individuals and includes behaviours that mediate the formation and maintenance of that bond" (McClellan & Killeen, 2000, p. 354)
 - » Humans have the propensity/are predisposed to make strong affectional bonds to particular others.
- Early internal models of attachment provide children with template for all future relationships and subsequent attachments.
- Strong association between early maternal separations and subsequent delinquency among boys.
- **If insecure** - unable to form functional social relationships
- **Insecure attachments** have been associated with:

- Aggression, general and domestic violence, separation assault, stalking, sexual violence, other criminal behaviour

Strength – drew attention to importance of early life experiences

Secure attachment – child forms a relationship and feels safe

Insecure attachment – children who got abused will see the world in a different way

5. Eysenck's biosocial theory of crime

- Biosocial: Genetic factors contribute to behavior but effects influenced by environmental or social factors:
- 4 aspects to his biosocial theory
 - » Genetics
 - » Constitutional factors (physical strength)
 - » Personality
 - » Environmental influences

1. Genetics:

- » What about XYY? More aggressive? **DEFUNCT**
- » Twin studies?
 - 0.7 correlation for monozygotic twins for criminality vs 0.4 correlation for dizygotic twins

2. Constitutional factors:

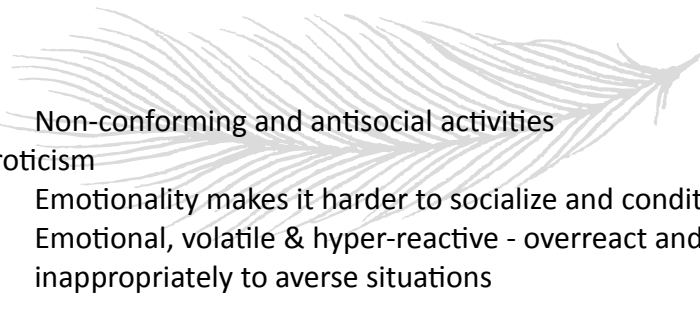
- » Physical differences b/w criminals and non-criminals
- » Sheldon's (1949) 3 body types (ie somatypes):
 - Endomorphs, ectomorphs, mesomorphs
 - Research: Mesomorphs - violent and aggressive acts; Delinquents – endomorphs not ectomorphs

3. Personality

- » 3 components
 - Extraversion (outgoing and love social interaction)
 - Psychoticism
 - Neuroticism
- Eysenck believed all 3 of these are related to criminality; High levels on all signal possible criminality

4. Environmental influences: Socialisation

- » Based on Pavlov's classical conditioning principles
- » Crime is failure of socialisation to stop immature tendencies
- » Can be socialised to be less criminal
 - Behaviour influenced by Rewards and Punishment
- » Extraverts
 - Learn more slowly than introverts, therefore more likely to be criminal
- » Psychoticism

- 
- Non-conforming and antisocial activities
 - » Neuroticism
 - Emotionality makes it harder to socialize and condition the person
 - Emotional, volatile & hyper-reactive - overreact and respond inappropriately to aversive situations

Reinforcing for the behavior you want

6. Social learning theory

- Albert Bandura
 - » Bobo doll experiment
 - Observational learning & Modelling
 - » Consequences are therefore important
 - » Reinforcement also important
 - Another extension of theory lies in the concept of motivation
 - » 3 aspects to motivation
 - External reinforcement
 - Vicarious reinforcement
 - Self-reinforcement
-
- SLT of crime suggests observational learning takes place primarily in 3 places:
 1. Family
 - a. unlikely to learn violence inappropriate
 - b. fewer opportunities to learn constructive/pro-social conflict resolution or coping strategies. Many opportunities to learn to use violence as a means to resolve conflict or cope with stress
 - c. non-violent strategies receive little reinforcement
 - d. reinforce individuals' use of violence
 2. Prevalent subculture (your social group)
 3. Cultural symbols which form part of social environment (books, TV)

Criticisms of Social Learning Theory:

- » Overly simplistic view
- » That the individual is a passive receptor of learning processes
- » Don't allow for purpose and meaning
- » Or that same event can be experienced very differently by different people
- » Don't take into account the idea of free will
- » Can't explain under what circumstances criminal behavior will or will not be learned



7. The social construction of crime

- Social constructionism is a sociological theory of knowledge that considers how social phenomena develop in social contexts
- **The idea that how we regard crime and criminals is socially constructed**
 - » Eg. crime is not static
- What is a crime varies:
 - » Across countries
 - » Across time
 - » Across circumstances
 - » Elite social constructionism - groups with status, standing or power influence laws
- Relevance to forensic psychologists is remote

Conclusion

- » Theories exist at multiple levels
- » There are a plethora of theories of crime
 - Neuropsychology, intelligence, attachment, rational choice, biosocial, social learning, social construction
- » No one theory is right all the time or can explain all criminal behaviour. Complex interaction between all factors.
- » Most forensic psychologists will move between theories depending upon the matter being considered

Juvenile Delinquency and Juvenile Justice

Learning objectives

- ▶ Explain the extent of juvenile offending
- ▶ Outline theories of adolescent offending
- ▶ Discuss research findings related to offending during adolescence
- ▶ Understand life-course criminology and its goals
 - Describe the types of adolescent offenders
 - Outline the risk and protective factors for delinquency/ adolescent offending
- ▶ Discuss responses to adolescent antisocial behavior, including:
 - Intervention and prevention programs
 - Police diversions
 - Youth Justice Conferences

While male youth offending rates have remained steady over recent years, female youth offending rates have increased slightly

Juvenile offending

- In Australia:
 - » Age of criminal responsibility:
10years
 - » Doli incapax:
10- 14 years
 - » Adult at 18 years of age
- (Qld has very recently
moved to align with this)

In 2016/17:

- 54,064 youth offenders were recorded by police across Australia
- For the fourth consecutive year, youth offenders (aged 10–17 years) accounted for 13% of the total offender population (and 11% of the total Australian Estimated Resident Population)
- Youth offending varied by State/Territory:
 - » Highest in NT (2,961/100,000)
 - » lowest in ACT (884/100,000)
- The Australian youth offender rate (2,330/100,000) was higher than the general offender population (1,949/100,000)
 - » In SA, Tas & NT youths had lower rates of offending than adults
 - » WA had the highest proportion of youth offenders to adult offenders
- Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander youth are over-represented

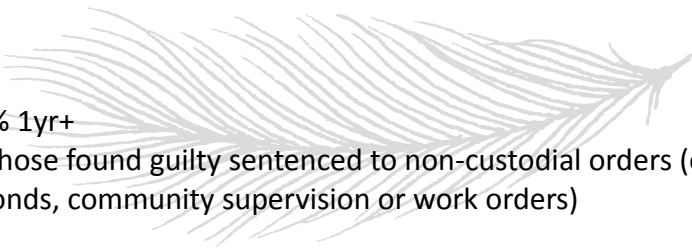
Most common youth offences (2016/17):

- Theft (36%)
 - » most prevalent principal offence in all jurisdictions, except Tas, the NT and ACT.
 - » Principal offence of 54% of youth offenders in NSW
- Acts intended to cause injury (16%)
- Illicit drug offences (11%)
- Public order offences (10%)

Across many offence categories, numbers of youth offenders have been declining, HOWEVER illicit drug offences and sexual assault (and related offences) have increased between 2008/9 and 2016/17.

In the Children's Court during 2016/17:

- 27,972 defendants finalised
- 22,248 defendants found guilty
- 1,443 sentenced to custody
 - » 25.5% < 3 mths
 - » 25.1% 3-6 mths
 - » 24.7% 6-12 mths

- 
- » 24.6% 1yr+
 - Majority of those found guilty sentenced to non-custodial orders (e.g., fines, good behaviour bonds, community supervision or work orders)

Theories of Delinquency

- Can usually be clustered into 3 groups:
 - » Individual propensity approaches
 - Delinquency a consequence of individual characteristics
 - Eg. Theory of Moral reasoning development
 - » Social-interactionist approaches.
 - Social control theory + social learning theory
 - Eg. Social development model;

General age-graded theory of crime

- » An integrated factor approach.
 - A pathways approach

Research Findings

- Research shows that:
 - » For 8-25 year old males, most offending occurs at about 16-17yrs
 - » Those convicted earliest, tend to offend the most
 - » Recidivism rates are high for young offenders
 - » Young offenders are rarely imprisoned for a single offence, rather for a number of offences.

Crime runs in families:

- 1/3 of prisoners in UK also had a family member in prison
- 53% of males who had a convicted family member had conviction themselves
- 1% of families were responsible for 20% of convictions in UK

Parenting-related antecedents include:

- » Punitive child rearing practices
- » Absence of love, rejection
- » Poor monitoring and supervision
- » Family disruption
- » Deviant parental characteristics

Adolescent Sex Offending

- Some evidence that factors predictive of adolescent sexual offending are different to that of non-sexual offenders (e.g., Langstrom, 1999)
 - » Early onset of sexually abusive behaviour.
 - » Male victims
 - » Multiple victims
 - » Poor social skills



Life-course criminology

- Also known as developmental criminology
- Concerned with three main issues:
 1. The development of offending and antisocial behaviour
 2. Risk and protective factors at different ages
 3. The effects of life events on the course of development
- Especially concerned with documenting and explaining within-individual changes in offending throughout life

Criminal careers

Haapasalo & Tremblay (1994)

- » Early childhood aggression (fighting, kicking, biting, hitting, bullying/intimidation)
- » Teachers asked to rate 1000 boys on aggression
- » Kids grouped into 5 fighting patterns:
 1. Stable high fighters – most socially disadvantaged home environments
 2. High fighters with late onset
 3. Desisting high fighters
 4. Variable high fighters
 5. Non-fighters

Moffitt's dual typology:

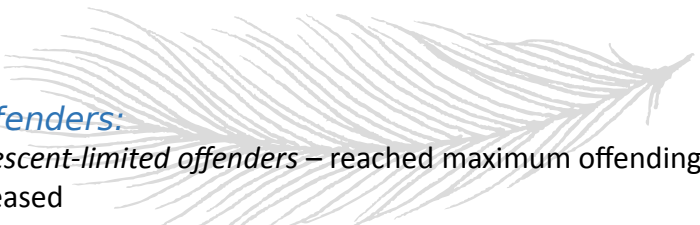
- *Life-course persistent offenders*
 - » Start off offending at an early age and persist beyond their 20s
 - » Commit a wide range of offences including violence
 - » Very small group of offenders but account for most crime
 - » Cause: neurological

Adolescent-limited offenders

- » Short criminal career during teens
- » Commit predominantly rebellious, non-violent crimes
- » Cause: maturity gap

Berlin Crime Study (Dahle, 1999)

- » Male adult offenders admitted to prison in 1976 .
- » Property offences & fraud = 60%
- » Robbery & bodily harm = 10%
- » Sexual offences & homicide rare



Categories of offenders:

- » *Adolescent-limited offenders* – reached maximum offending by age 20 then decreased
- » *Limited serious offenders* – seriousness escalated but ceased around age 30
- » *Persistent serious offenders* – accumulated risk factors and high recidivism.
- » *Occasional offenders* – low delinquency, absence of childhood risk factors, offending may be associated with critical life events, specialist offending
- » *Late-starting offenders* – similar to occasional but offending not triggered by life events, professional criminals (e.g., fraud, burglary)

Important concepts

- » *Pathway*
 - Experiences of one's life that, over time and social situations have a shape, coherence and story to tell.
- » *Transition*
 - a transition is a movement from one life stage to the next.
- » *Turning point*
 - A personalised event
- » *Risk factors*
 - Shown to be associated with negative outcomes in later life
- » *Protective factors*
 - Reduce likelihood of negative outcomes (buffer the effects of risk factors)

Predicting delinquency

- Longitudinal research helps identify variables that predict offending
- **Risk factors**- variables that are related to an increased likelihood of poor outcomes such as offending
 - » Risk factors are specific to outcomes
 - » Increased statistical likelihood- not certainty
- **Protective factors**- variables that buffer or ameliorate risk

Pioneered by: Sheldon & Eleanor Glueck (1950)

- » study of 500 juvenile delinquents and 500 matched non-delinquents
- » examined 402 factors for each subject
- » concluded that factors related to the boys' family backgrounds were the best predictors of delinquency (discipline, supervision, affection, family cohesion)

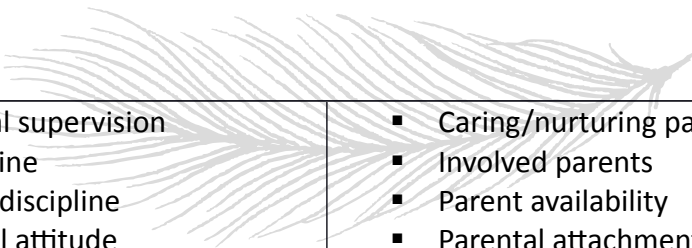
Cambridge Study- (West & Farrington)

- longitudinal survey of crime and delinquency in 411 males, mostly born in 1953 and from working class families
- Followed for 40+ years
- Between ages 10 and 16 (inclusive) 85 males (21%) were convicted. At age 40, 164 males (40%) were convicted

- Crime ran in families: 6% of families accounted for more than half the convictions, around half of convicted boys had convicted parents
- Predictors:
 - » Antisocial behavior
 - » Impulsivity (daring, hyperactivity, poor concentration)
 - » Low intelligence (poor achievement, early school leaving)
 - » Family criminality
 - » Family poverty (income, family size, poor housing)
 - » Poor parenting (harsh & inconsistent discipline, poor supervision, neglect)



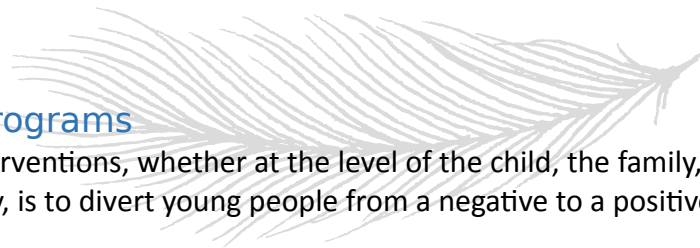
Risk Factors	Protective factors
<u>Individual</u>	<u>individual</u>
▪ Low IQ ▪ Low school achievement ▪ Hyperactivity ▪ Impulsiveness ▪ Risk taking ▪ Antisocial attitude ▪ Neurological problems ▪ Perinatal difficulty ▪ History of antisocial behaviour	▪ Good Cognitive performance ▪ Moral beliefs ▪ Values ▪ Empathy ▪ Self control ▪ Problem solving skills ▪ Good coping style ▪ Achievement
<u>Family</u>	<u>Family</u>



▪ Poor parental supervision ▪ Harsh discipline ▪ Inconsistent discipline ▪ Cold parental attitude ▪ Parental conflict or divorce/separation ▪ Criminal parents ▪ Delinquent siblings ▪ Parental substance abuse ▪ Family poverty & high mobility	▪ Caring/nurturing parents ▪ Involved parents ▪ Parent availability ▪ Parental attachment ▪ Family harmony ▪ Family interaction (e.g. dinner) ▪ Supervision and monitoring
<u>Social</u>	<u>Social</u>
▪ Delinquent peers ▪ Peer rejection ▪ Bullying ▪ Low popularity (but also high popularity) ▪ Unsupervised/ unstructured free time	▪ Prosocial peer group ▪ Peer acceptance ▪ Social skills ▪ Relationship with caring adult
<u>Community</u>	<u>Community</u>
▪ Poor school climate (bullying) ▪ Poor parent-teacher school relationship ▪ Neighbourhood poverty ▪ Poor access to resources ▪ Exposure to violence & crime ▪ Socially disorganised neighbourhood ▪ Low community efficacy	▪ Positive school climate ▪ School membership ▪ Access to support services ▪ Residential stability ▪ Community/cultural norms ▪ Community social cohesion ▪ Opportunities ▪ Support

Risk and Protective Factors

- » In addition- structural/environmental risk factors: e.g. Poverty, disadvantage, housing conditions, homelessness etc.
- » Risk & protective factors are intercorrelated
 - Yoshikawa (1995): *delinquency results from interactions between numerous risk factors across multiple settings*
- » Different risk factors matter at different times
- » Risk factors are cumulative
 - Number of risks (and number of protective factors) is important
- » Disentangling risk factors from 'causes' is difficult



Intervention Programs

The purpose of interventions, whether at the level of the child, the family, the school, or the broader community, is to divert young people from a negative to a positive pathway

- **Universal:**
 - » For the general population or for all members of a specified collective eg. a community or school
- **Selected:**
 - » For groups judged to be at increased risk
- **Targeted:**

Directed at individuals already manifesting a problem such as disruptive behaviour

- Interventions aim to change antisocial behaviours
- Prevention programs aim to prevent antisocial behaviours by targeting risk factors
 - » May be universal or selected in nature
- Features of Interventions:
 - » Guided by knowledge of risk and protective factors
 - » Often include multiple components targeting multiple risk factors

Prevention Programs

- » Take place early in life or at crucial transition periods
- » Frequently do not aim to specifically reduce crime, but address common risk factors

Intervention Settings

- Home
- Pre-school/School
 - » May also be used as venue for parent training
- Community
 - » Playgroups, Health care centres, Churches etc.
- *Educational programs* –school programs (focus on social skills, decision making, cognitive enrichment)
- *Family support programs* – home-visitation often with disadvantaged mothers (focuses on care, nutrition, parenting skills)
- *Combined family support and early education* – some evidence that this combination is most effective in reducing antisocial behaviour in long-term

Elmira/Parental Early Infancy Project

- » Bi-weekly home visit by a nurse who provided prenatal care, baby health care, assistance with linking to other services.
- » Subjects: 400 first time mothers who were young, poor, and/or single.

- **Outcomes**

Why was it successful? Encouraged sense of control over lives.
Increasing parent involvement in child development & improved child health

- 
- » Better parenting skills at age 4
 - » Higher maternal employment
 - » Fewer subsequent pregnancies
 - » More widely spaced pregnancies
 - » More mothers returned to education
 - » Less abuse/neglect

Perry Preschool Project

- » Subjects: 123 disadvantaged African-American 3-4 year olds
- » A high quality preschool education program + weekly home visits by teachers.

Outcomes: (from follow up to age 40)

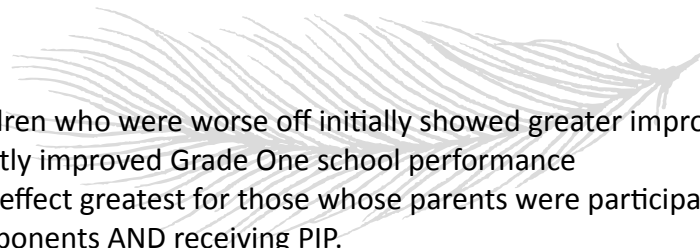
- » Higher school achievement
- » Higher rates of literacy and employment
- » Less welfare dependency
- » More likely to be home owners
- » Less antisocial behaviour
- » Less offending, especially fewer arrests
- » Cost-benefit- for every \$1 spent on the program, \$16.14 was saved in the long run.

Pathways to Prevention Project

- » Began in 2001 <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=5NwaqRwL6vA> (4 mins)
- » 7 schools targeted in disadvantaged suburbs of Brisbane (3 ethnic groups: Indigenous, Pacific Islander, Vietnamese)
- » Targeted families with 4-6 year olds commencing school
- » 2 intervention streams:
 - The Preschool Intervention Program (PIP)
 - Communication Program
 - Social Skills program
 - The Family Independence Program (FIP)
 - Parent training
 - Playgroups- cultural; adult support groups
 - Counselling and crisis support, welfare assistance

Outcomes:

- Measured:
 - » Language skill
 - » Teacher assessment of readiness for school
 - » Behaviour rating inventory
- Findings:
 - » PIP had a positive effect on reducing problem behaviour for boys in the program schools, and increasing teacher ratings of readiness for school

- 
- » Children who were worse off initially showed greater improvements
 - » Slightly improved Grade One school performance
 - » BUT effect greatest for those whose parents were participating in FIP components AND receiving PIP.

Features of successful programs

- Well-resourced
- Carefully implemented by well-trained staff
- Based on explicit theories- though varied in nature- no one 'correct' approach
- Some form of development of parental capacities, resources and skills, sometimes through parent training and sometimes through more broad family support
- Operated simultaneously in multiple domains, including children, their parents and their teachers

Responding to Juvenile Offending

- Is there anything we can do to try and prevent reoffending in the future?
- 4 Diversionary options in Qld:
 - » Take no action
 - » Cautioning
 - » Youth justice conference
 - » Drug diversion
- Considerations:
 - » Offence committed
 - » Criminal history
 - » Had diversionary option in past

Youth Justice Conference

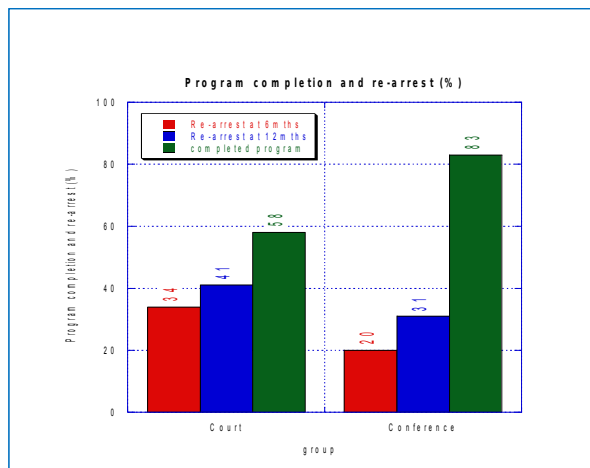
- A meeting between youth and the people who were affected by the offence committed.
- The purpose of a youth justice conference is to:
 - » make sure youth understand they are responsible for what they did
 - » give youth an idea of the effect it had on other people
 - » give youth a chance to make amends.
- Offender must agree to attend
- Victim will be asked to attend
- YJC agreement:
 - » apologise
 - » replace damaged property
 - » do something to make the victim feel safer
 - » agree to accept help to stop committing offences
 - » do voluntary work for the community or an organisation the victim chooses.
- Punishment can't be harsher than if you went to court

Do YJCs work?

- The Reintegrative Shaming Experiments (RISE) – Sherman et al (2000):
 - Reviewed police records prior to incident and followed up 1 yr after intervention.
 - » Compared to court, conferences led to
 - Big drop in offending rates by violent offenders
 - Very small increase in offending by drink drivers
 - Lack of any difference in repeat offending by juvenile property offenders or shoplifters
- McGarrell et al (2000)
 - » US based study
 - » Juveniles < 14 yrs, assigned to court or conference

Juveniles attending conference:

- Less likely to be rearrested 6mths later
- Less likely to relapse 12mths later
- More likely to successfully complete the conference and terms of the reparation agreement



Sexual Offenders

Learning objectives

By the end of this week you should be able to:

- Explain the difference between criminological and psychological approaches to sexual offending/offenders
- Define and describe the rapist typologies and patterns
- Explain sexual offending from the perspective of
 - » Socio-cultural Theories
 - » Feminist Theories
 - » Social Learning Theory
 - » Evolutionary Theory

- 
- » Explain the operation of the Dangerous Prisoner (Sexual Offenders) Act 2003, including pros and cons

Sexual offending – some considerations

- » What constitutes sexual offending/rape?
 - definitions vary
 - differences over time and across locations
- » Child sexual offending VS Paedophilia
- » Rates of sexual offending/rape are difficult to ascertain
- » Societal views and beliefs

Facts

In 2007 there were 19,781 recorded sexual assaults in Australia in 2007, with 94 victims per 100,000 of the population (AIC, 2015)

- AUSTRALIAN STATISTICS:
 - » 17% of women and 4% of men experienced sexual assault since the age of 15 (ABS, 2012)
 - » 93% of offenders are male (ABS, 2014)
 - » 1 in 6 reported rapes result in prosecution
 - » Around 17% of reported offences result in a conviction (ABS, 2013)
- Women are most likely to be raped by someone they know, rather than a stranger. However women are more likely to report rape by a stranger than a familiar
 - 45% current partner
 - 16% acquaintance
 - 11% ex-partner
 - 11% date
 - 10% other intimate
 - 8% stranger

Explaining sexual offending

Criminological versus psychological approaches

- Study of sexual offenders dominated by psychology
 - » Assumptions: sexual offenders specialise in their offending, sexual offenders are substantially different to other offenders
 - » lead to treatment programs that focus on sexual deviancy and cognitions associated with the sexual nature of offence

HOWEVER

- » Research suggests no specific personality traits differentiate child sexual offenders
- » Cleary (2004): sex offenders frequently fathered illegitimate children, misused alcohol and drugs, frequently injured in motorcycle accidents (poor self control)
- » Sex offenders who return to prison are most likely to be arrested for non-sexual crimes (Langan, Schmitt & Durose, 2004)
- Emerging interest in versatility of offending by men convicted of a sexual offence and application of criminological models

Offending against children

- Rapists and child sex offenders may differ in etiology
 - » however some research finds otherwise (eg. Smallbone & Wortley, 2001)
- Offending against children: multi-dimensional & multi-determined.
 - » opportunity plays a key role
 - » most child sex offenders are known to their victim
 - » r'ship between being abused and becoming an abuser is unclear
 - » fixated VS regressed offenders

Number of models proposed to explain paedophilia, for example:

- » SEXUALISATION MODEL: assumes early childhood experiences, such as abuse by females and sexual experiences with other children, are conducive with the development of paedophilia
- » PSYCHOTHERAPEUTIC-COGNITIVE MODEL: cognitive distortions rationalise or excuse behaviours
- » Vulnerability factors in childhoods of young sex offenders which predispose them to committing sexual offences against children

Rape offences: typologies of rapists

- The motives and behaviours of rapists have been summarised by Hazelwood (1987) as follows:
 - » *The power-assurance rapist* – insecurities about masculinity
 - » *The power-assertive rapist* – expresses sexuality and power over women
 - » *The anger-retaliatory rapist* – high levels of anger towards women
 - » *The anger-excitement rapist* – gains pleasure and excitement from distress of victim



Offending patterns

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Theoretical perspectives

Socio-cultural theories

- Some aspects of cultural organisation of society might encourage men to rape
- Individualist-collectivist orientation
- Gender inequality
- Social disorganisation

Feminist Theories

- Gender structure of society regarding control of women
- Disparities in social status and power
- Rape motivated by desire for power and dominance
- Lower levels of rape in more sexual egalitarian societies

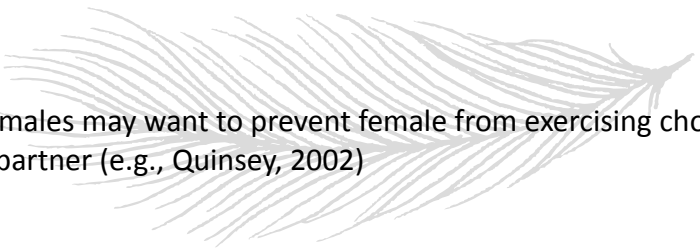
Note: There are many feminist theories, this is a brief summary of some ideas

Social Learning Theory

- Rapists learn pro-rape beliefs and attitudes from their social network
 - » Process of modelling and reinforcing
 - » But not all men with pro-rape attitudes actually commit rape
- Following this argument, use of violent pornography should increase propensity to commit rape
 - » Although pornography may be used, there is little evidence to support notion that there is a causal relationship between pornography and rape

Evolutionary Theory

- Broad theory relating to one's adaptiveness for the transmission of one's genetic material (to create next generation)
- Examine rape to extent that it serves this purpose (e.g., Ellis, 1989)
- Therefore rape is at least partially sexual, not only related to violence
- Males and females do not necessarily share the same interests in sexual reproduction

- 
- Times when males may want to prevent female from exercising choice over appropriate partner (e.g., Quinsey, 2002)

Violent offending

By the end of this week you should be able to:

- ▶ Distinguish between expressive and instrumental violence
- ▶ Understand the causes of violence
- ▶ Distinguish the various degrees of murder
- ▶ Understand the nature and extent of intimate partner violence, and the role of gender
- ▶ Explain the emerging forms of interpersonal violence

■ Violent Offending

- Violent offending in Australia
- Causes of violence

■ focus on:

- Homicide
- Intimate Partner Violence
- Emerging forms of interpersonal violence

reading: Chapter 8 “Violent offenders” in *“Introduction to Forensic and Criminal Psychology”* by Howitt

What is violent crime?

- constitutes a range of offences
 - » explanations for offending vary
- can include offences such as: *assault, assault causing bodily harm, wounding, attempted homicide, homicide, kidnapping, forcible confinement, armed robbery and sexual offences.*
- This lecture focuses on specific types of interpersonal violence:
 - » homicide, intimate partner violence, and new forms of interpersonal violence (hate crimes, stalking).

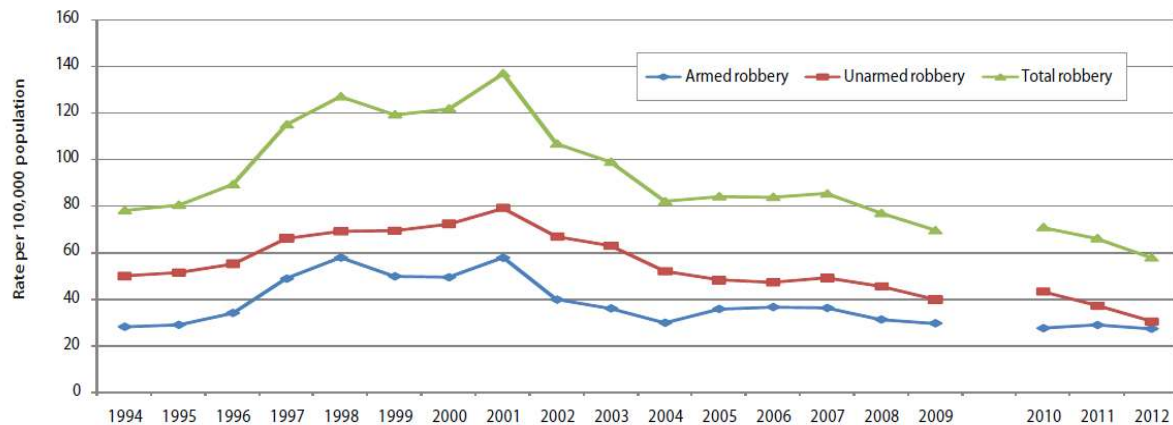
Violent crime rates

- Public perception is that violence is increasing- evidence says results are mixed
- Since 1993 in Australia:

- » **robberies** have decreased
- » **homicide** has decreased
- » **assaults** and **sexual assaults** have increased
- Surprisingly, violent crime has been decreasing in the USA

Australian trends – robbery

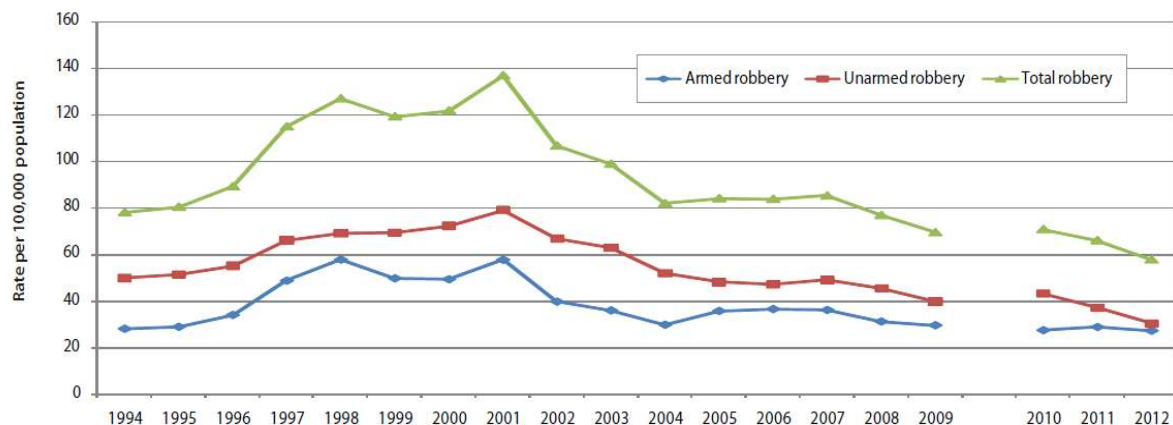
Figure 1. Australian trends in recorded rates of armed robbery, unarmed robbery and total robbery (1994-2012)



Source: Australian Bureau of Statistics (2013, unpublished data)

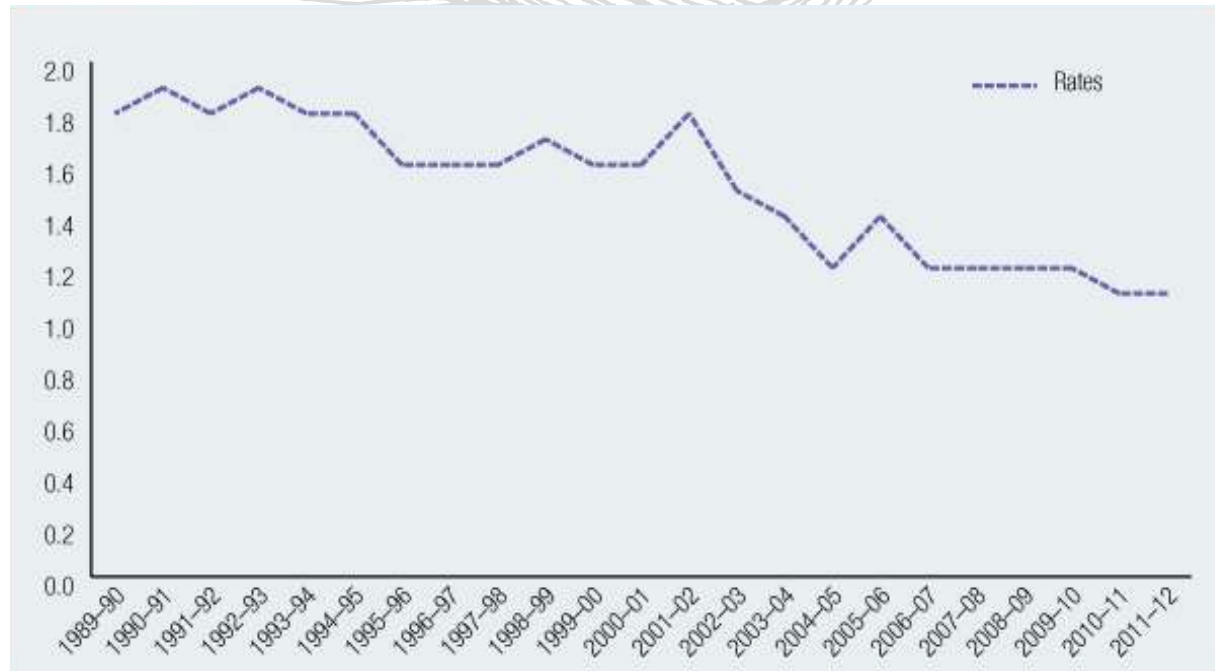
Assault

Figure 1. Australian trends in recorded rates of armed robbery, unarmed robbery and total robbery (1994-2012)



Source: Australian Bureau of Statistics (2013, unpublished data)

Homicide



Critical thinking: Violence

What are the characteristics which tend not to make up violent offences?

- » A. Age (tend to be young)
- » B. Associated with alcohol
- » C. Males
- » D. Brain dysfunction

Categorizing violence

Expressive

VS

Instrumental
violence

Instrumental – designed to improve the financial or social position of the offender
(eg. kills for a fee)

Expressive – acts that vent rage, anger or frustration (eg. Anita Cobby)

Causes of Violence

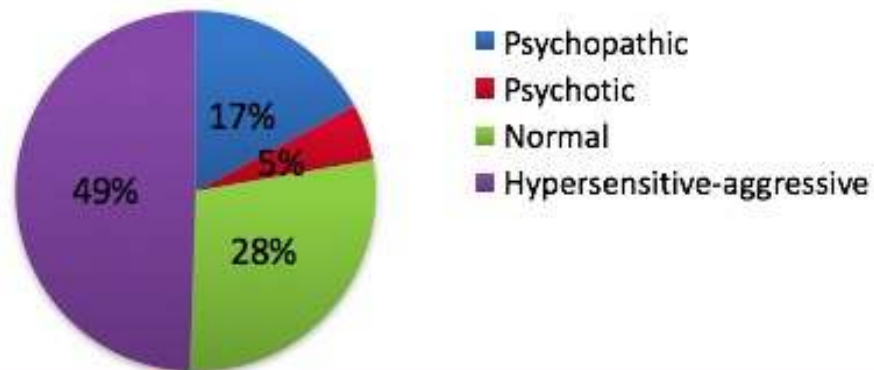


Personal Traits & makeup

- Neurological
 - » cerebral atrophy; brain injury
- Intellectual functioning
 - » verbal deficits, IQ
- Mental health
 - » Oppositional Defiant Disorder, Conduct Disorder children to 17 years & Antisocial Personality Disorder
 - » Psychotic and major Affective disorders increase risk (Swanson et al., 1990)
- Characteristics and traits
 - » trait anger
 - » impulsivity

Biro, Vuckovic & Duric (1992):

Many men who kill have normal personalities



Personal traits/makeup case study: Martin Bryant

"Cannot read or write. Does a bit of gardening and watches TV ... Only his parents' efforts prevent further deterioration. Could be schizophrenic and parents face a bleak future with him."

Evolutionary factors/human instinct

Violent responses and emotions may be instinctual

- Sigmund Freud
 - » Eros – life instinct
 - » Thanatos – death instinct
 - » the role of the Super-ego
 - » Evolutionary theory
 - » natural urges are suppressed
 - » violent behaviour is committed predominantly by men

Substance abuse

US Dept Justice (1998) Alcohol and Crime Report:

- » offender using alcohol in around 35% of cases
- » offender also using drugs in 1 in 5 cases

Australian research (AIC, 2009):

- » alcohol involved in 23-73% of all assaults

Substance abuse linked to violence in 3 ways:

1. Psychopharmacological relationship

- » Drugs such as amphetamines produce violent, aggressive behaviour; alcohol abuse associated with violence

- 
- 2. Economic compulsive behaviour
 - » addicts commit crimes to support habits
 - 3. Systemic link- Turf wars

Socialization and upbringing

- Attitudes, beliefs and behaviours of family and friends
- Parenting practices
- Absent or deviant parents; Inconsistent discipline;
- Parental conflict; Lack of supervision

Child abuse & the cycle of violence

- Physically abused children more likely to be spouse abusers
- Samples of convicted murderers reveal high % of seriously abused youth
- Landsford et al. (2009): physical abuse during the first 5 years of life increased likelihood of violent delinquency during adolescence
- Lewis (1998) found juveniles on death row all had history of intense child abuse

Exposure to violence

Exposure to violence in environment

- » Psychological harm
- » Desensitisation

Violence in media and entertainment

- » Links most often found in laboratory based
- » relationship, but correlational at best
- » Interacting variables eg. individual differences - people with aggressive tendencies are more drawn to violent media

Intimate partner violence

- a substantial amount of IPV is witnessed by children
- exposure is recognised as a form of child abuse
- Intergenerational transmission of violence:
some evidence for violence-tolerant attitudes

Cultural values / subculture of violence

- Cultural and subcultural norms can encourage violence
 - » intolerance/stereotyping supports violent behaviours
- Disorganised neighbourhoods

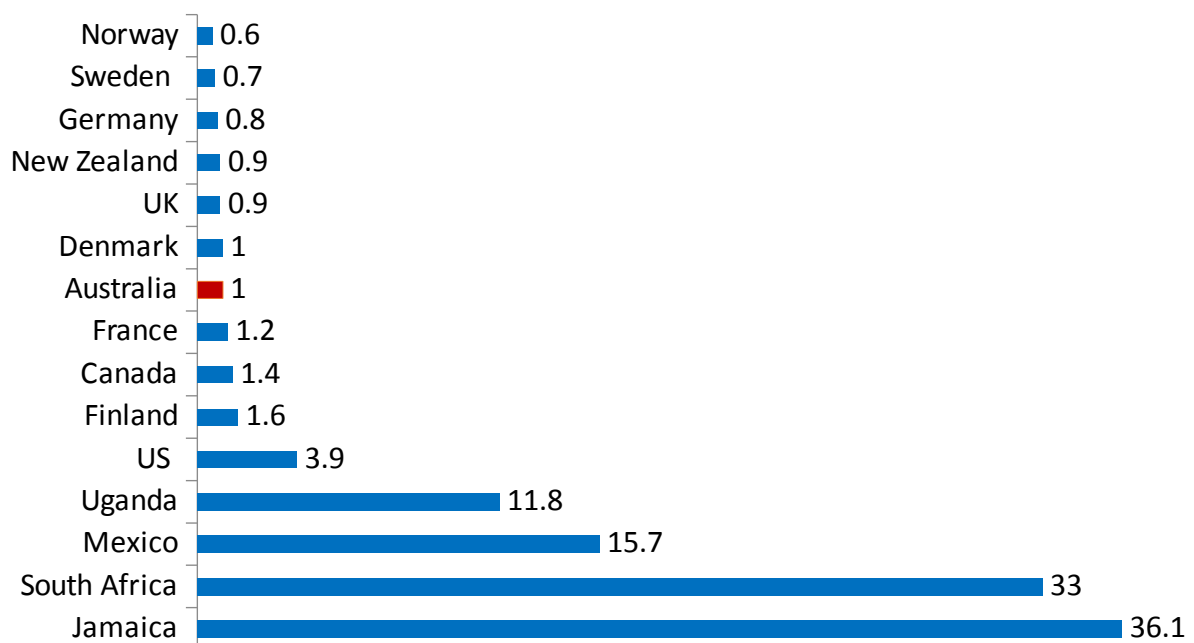
- » higher rates of violent crime
- » Subculture of violence (Wolfgang & Ferracuti ,1967)

- Scott Decker-gang violence:
 - enables new members to show toughness during initiation
 - can be used to retaliate against rivals for grievances
 - protects ownership
 - protects turf from incursions by outsiders

Types of homicide

- Murder: 'the unlawful killing of a human being with malice aforethought'
 - » No statute of limitation for murder
- Degrees of Murder
 - » First degree murder
 - Premeditation & deliberation required
 - Felony murder
 - » Second degree murder
 - Malice aforethought but not premeditation or deliberation
- Manslaughter - voluntary vs. involuntary
 - Homicide without malice

Homicide rates per 100,000



Characteristics of homicide in Australia

- 1/2 of homicide incidents occurred on Friday, Saturday, or Sunday
- 2/3 occurred between 6pm and 6am
- Approx. 60% of victims are male
- Approx. 87% of offenders are male
- 2 out of 5 offenders under influence of alcohol

VICTIM-OFFENDER RELATIONSHIP

- 80% of homicides committed by someone known to the victim
- Women more likely to kill husbands, followed by ex-husbands, defactos, lovers & their kids
- 60% of homicide incidents occurred in residential premises

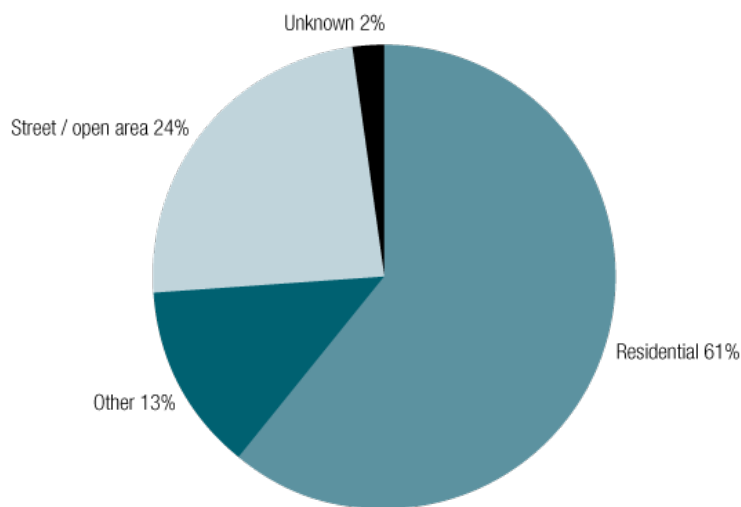
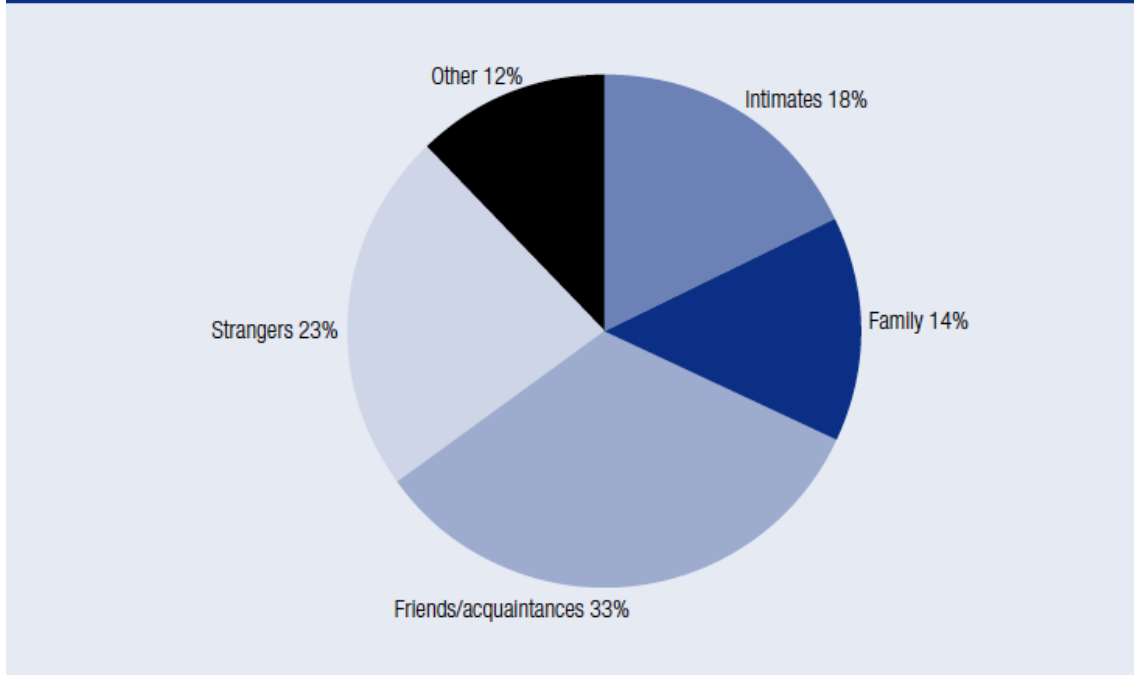


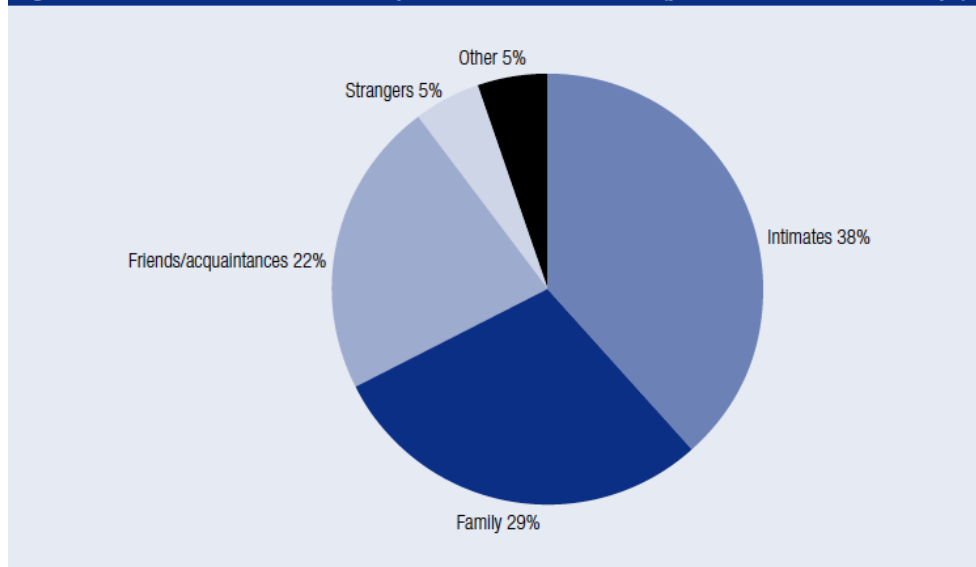


Figure 10: Male offenders' relationships with victims in 2006–07 (percent recorded relationships)



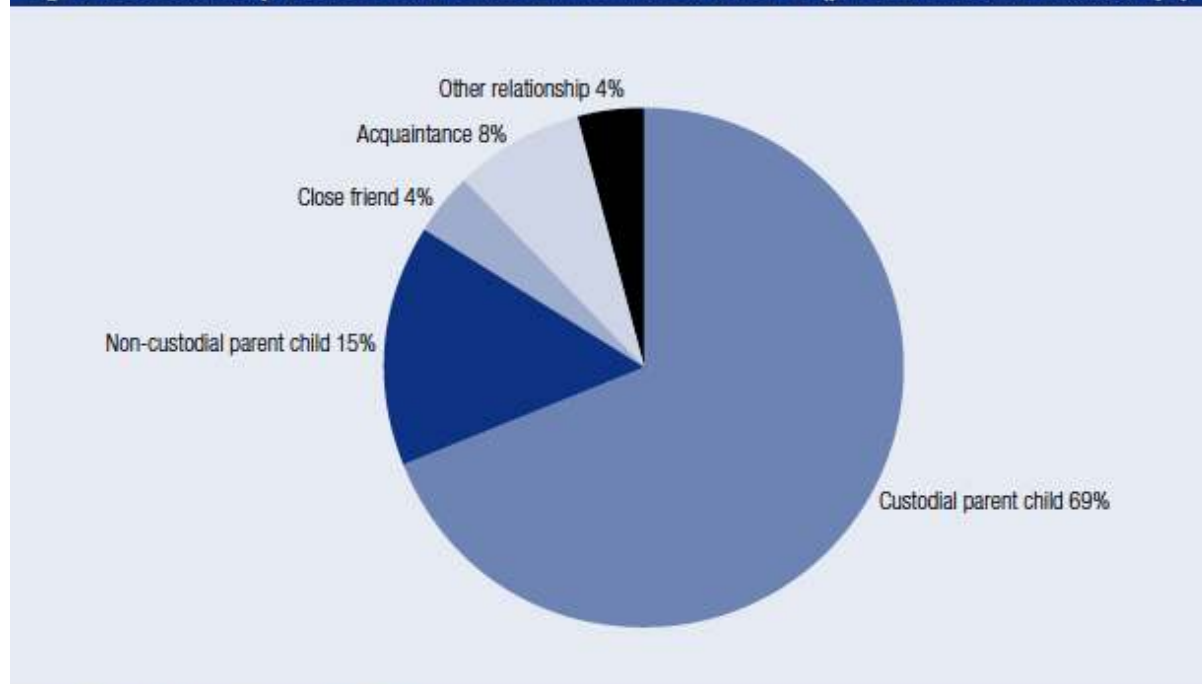
Source: AIC NHMP 2006–07 [computer file], n = 243

Figure 11: Female offenders' relationships with victims in 2006–07 (percent recorded relationships)



Source: AIC NHMP 2006–07 [computer file], n = 55

Figure 7: Relationship between child victim and offender in 2006–07 (percent recorded relationships)



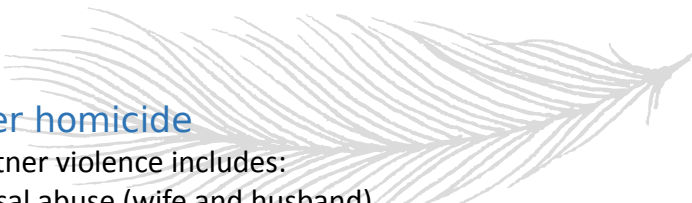
Source: AIC NHMP 2006–07 [computer file], n = 26

Multiple murder

- [Washington DC Sniper Killer](#) (2.30)
- *Mass murderers, spree killers, serial killers*
- Mass murders
- in one single event kill a number of victims
- Fox & Levin's (2003) typology of mass murderers:
 - Revenge killers, Love killers, Profit killers, Terrorist killers
 - Spree killers
- killing is spread over a few days or weeks

Serial murder

- Serial killers
 - » kill over a period of time (often a long period) but assume a normal identity between murders
 - » Fox & Levin's (2003) typology of serial killers:
 - Thrill killers, Mission killers, Expedience killers
 - » 20 serial killers active in any given year in US accounting for 1% of all murders (Fox & Levin, 2003)
 - » usually male- estimated 10-15% female
 - differences in crimes according to gender



Intimate partner homicide

- Intimate partner violence includes:
 - » Spousal abuse (wife and husband)
 - » Unmarried intimate partners (don't need to share residence)
 - » The *Domestic and Family Violence Act 1989 (Qld)* defines domestic relationships in s.11(A) as:
 - » (a) a spousal relationship
 - » (b) an intimate personal relationship
 - » (c) a family relationship
 - » (d) an informal care relationship

- According to s.11(1) domestic violence includes:
 - (a) wilful injury;
 - (b) wilful damage to the other person's property;
 - (c) intimidation or harassment of the other person;
 - (d) indecent behaviour to the other person without consent;
 - (e) a threat to commit an act mentioned in paragraphs (a) to (d)

- Prevalence:
 - » World Health Organisation (2002)
 - Half of all women who die from homicide are killed by current or former husband/boyfriend
 - Worldwide 13-61% of women reported physical violence by a partner, 4-49% reported severe physical violence
 - ¼ women will experience sexual violence by an intimate partner in their lifetime
 - » 17 per cent of all women & 5 per cent of men had experienced violence by a partner since 15yrs (ABS, 2013)
 - » Estimates from the USA indicate that as many as 12% of all marriages involve physical abuse towards the woman

- No typical profile of an abuser
 - » However alcohol and drug use feature
- 'Pitbulls' vs 'Cobras' (Jacobson & Gottman, 2007)
 - » **Pitbulls:** *extreme jealousy and insecurities, controlling, long-lasting violence*
 - » **Cobras:** *very antisocial (violence not limited to partner), react quickly, like the abuse process*
- Patterns of IPV are likely to become entrenched
 - » Once abuse occurs it is likely to be repeated (Frieze & Browne, 1989)
 - » cycle of violence & Battered Women's Syndrome

IPV and gender

- According to research, the majority of victims are women (85%), being up to 8 times more likely than men to be assaulted by an intimate partner (Greenfield et al., 1998)
- According to Dobash and Dobash (2004):
 - Men were more likely to have been violent in preceding year
 - Women more likely to sustain injuries
 - Violence perpetrated by men rated as more serious
 - Men more likely to report the violence as inconsequential
- But should not ignore violence by women

Emerging forms of interpersonal violence

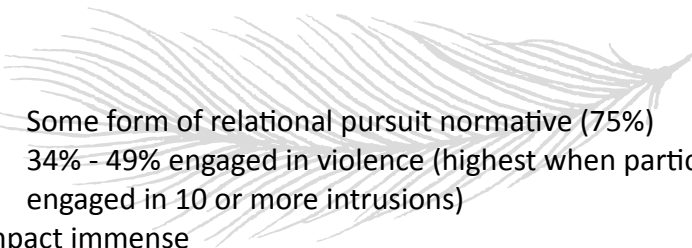
Hate crimes/Bias crimes

- Violent acts directed toward a particular person or members of a group because they share a racial, sexual, religious or gender characteristic.
- McDevitt & Levin (1993) 3 motivations for hate crimes:
 1. Thrill seeking hate crimes
 2. Reactive (defensive) hate crimes
 3. Mission hate crimes
 - KKK, Skinheads
- History:
 - » Domestic violence
 - » Celebrity stalking
- Ambiguous definitions in the research – continuum of behaviour that may be perceived as stalking
 - » A course of conduct directed at a specific person that involves repeated physical or visual proximity, nonconsensual communication, or verbal, written, or implied threats sufficient to cause fear (Siegal, 2006)
 - » Stalking legislation first introduced in Australia in QLD in 1993 and was further amended in 1999

Stalking

National Violence against Women Survey (Tjaden & Thoennes, 1998):

- » lifetime prevalence: 12% of women, 4% of men
- » 78% of stalking victims were women and 22% were men
- » Women reported that majority (94%) of the stalkers were men - 48% were intimates
- » stalking lasted for 1.8 years on average
- Stalking & violence:
 - » Thompson & Dennison (2008)

- 
- Some form of relational pursuit normative (75%)
 - 34% - 49% engaged in violence (highest when participants had engaged in 10 or more intrusions)
 - Long term impact immense